CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

Ownership, References, and Lifetimes in Rust

Memory: the Stack and the Heap

The stack

- constant-time, automatic (de)allocation
- Data size and lifetime must be known at compile-time
 - Function parameters and locals of known (constant) size

The heap

- Dynamically sized data, with non-fixed lifetime
 - Slightly slower to access than stack; i.e., via a pointer
- GC: automatic deallocation, adds space/time overhead
- Manual deallocation (C/C++): low overhead, but non-trivial opportunity for devastating bugs
 - Dangling pointers, double free instances of memory corruption

Memory: the Stack and the Heap

```
// C
char *p = malloc(10)
...
free(p);

// Java
String p = new String("rust");
...
p = null;//GC will collect later
heap
```

p is deleted from stack when the function terminates

Memory Management Errors

May forget to free memory (memory leak)

```
{ int *x = (int *) malloc(sizeof(int)); }
```

May retain ptr to freed memory (dangling pointer)

```
{ int *x = ...malloc();
  free(x);
  *x = 5; /* oops! */
}
```

May try to free something twice (double free)

```
{ int *x = ...malloc(); free(x); free(x); }
```

- This may corrupt the memory management data structures
 - E.g., the memory allocator maintains a free list of space on the heap that's available

GC-less Memory Management, Safely

- Rust's heap memory managed without GC
- Type checking ensures no dangling pointers or double frees
 - unsafe idioms are disallowed
 - memory leaks not prevented (not a safety problem)
- Key features of Rust that ensure safety: ownership and lifetimes
 - Data has a single owner. Immutable aliases OK, but mutation only via owner or single mutable reference
 - How long data is alive is determined by a lifetime

Memory: the Stack and the Heap

```
## String: from ("hello");
## Deleted when the owner p
is out of scope.

No manual free, no GC
```

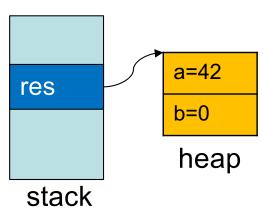
p is deleted from stack when the function terminates

heap

Ownership

Only one "owner" of an object

- When the "owner" of the object goes out of scope, its data is automatically freed. No Garbage collection
- Can not access object beyond its lifetime (checked at compiletime)



Rules of Ownership

- 1. Each value in Rust has a variable that's its owner
- 2. There can only be one owner at a time
- 3. When the owner goes out of scope, the value will be dropped (freed)

String: Dynamically sized, mutable data

```
{
  let mut s = String::from("hello");
  s.push_str(", world!"); //appends to s
  println!("{}", s);
} //s's data is freed by calling s.drop()
```

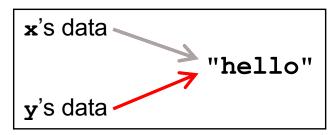
- s is the *owner* of this data
 - When s goes out of scope, its drop method is called, which frees the data

Assignment Transfers Ownership

Heap allocated data is copied by reference

```
let x = String::from("hello");
let y = x; //x moved to y
```

Both x and y point to the same underlying data



A move leaves only one owner: y

Avoids double free()!

```
println!("{}, world!", y); //ok
println!("{}, world!", x); //fails
```

Deep Copying Retains Ownership

Make clones (copies) to avoid ownership loss

```
let x = String::from("hello");
let y = x.clone(); //x no longer moved
println!("{}, world!", y); //ok
println!("{}, world!", x); //ok
```

- Primitives copied automatically
 - i32, char, bool, f32, tuples of these types, etc.

```
let x = 5;
let y = x;
println!("{} = 5!", y); //ok
println!("{} = 5!", x); //ok
```

These have the Copy trait; more on traits later

Ownership Transfer in Function Calls

```
fn main() {
  let s1 = String::from("hello");
  let s2 = id(s1); //s1 moved to arg
  println!("{}",s2); //id's result moved to s2
  println!("{}",s1); //fails
}

fn id(s:String) -> String {
  s // s moved to caller, on return
}
```

- On a call, ownership passes from:
 - argument to called function's parameter
 - returned value to caller's receiver

References and Borrowing

- Create an alias by making a reference
 - An explicit, non-owning pointer to the original value
 - Called borrowing. Done with & operator
- References are immutable by default

```
fn main() {
  let s1 = String::from("hello");
  let len = calc_len(&s1); //lends pointer
  println!("the length of '{}' is {}",s1,len);
}
fn calc_len(s: &String) -> usize {
  s.push_str("hi"); //fails! refs are immutable
  s.len() // s dropped; but not its referent
}
```

Quiz 1: Owner of s data at HERE?

```
fn foo(s:String) -> usize {
  let x = s;
  let y = &x;
  let z = x;
  let w = &y;
  \\ HERE
}
```

- A. x
- B. y
- C. z
- D. w

Quiz 1: Owner of s data at HERE?

```
fn foo(s:String) -> usize {
  let x = s;
  let y = &x;
  let z = x;
  let w = &y;
  \\ HERE
}
```

- A. x
- B. y
- C. z
- D. w

Rules of References

- 1. At any given time, you can have either but not both of
 - One mutable reference
 - Any number of immutable references
- 2. References must always be valid (pointed-to value not dropped)

Borrowing and Mutation

- Make immutable references to mutable values
 - Shares read-only access through owner and borrowed references
 - Same for immutable values
 - Mutation disallowed on original value until borrowed reference(s) dropped

```
{ let mut s1 = String::from("hello");
    { let s2 = &s1;
        println!("String is {} and {}",s1,s2); //ok
        s1.push_str(" world!"); //disallowed
    } //drops s2
    s1.push_str(" world!"); //ok
    println!("String is {}",s1);}//prints updated s1
```

Mutable references

- To permit mutation via a reference, use &mut
 - Instead of just &
 - But only OK for mutable variables

```
let mut s1 = String::from("hello");
{ let s2 = &s1;
    s2.push_str(" there");//disallowed; s2 immut
} //s2 dropped
let s3 = &mut s1; //ok since s1 mutable
s3.push_str(" there"); //ok since s3 mutable
println!("String is {}",s3); //ok
```

Quiz 2: What does this evaluate to?

```
{
  let mut s1 = String::from("Hello!");
  {
    let s2 = &s1;
    s2.push_str("World!");
    println!("{}", s2)
  }
}
```

- A. "Hello!"
- B. "Hello! World!"
- C. Error
- D. "Hello!World!"

Quiz 2: What does this evaluate to?

```
{
  let mut s1 = String::from("Hello!");
  {
    let s2 = &s1;
    s2.push_str("World!");
    println!("{}", s2)
  }
}
```

- A. "Hello!"
- B. "Hello! World!"
- C. Error; s2 is not mut
- D. "Hello!World!"

Quiz 3: What is printed?

```
fn foo(s: &mut String) -> usize{
    s.push_str("Bob");
    s.len()
}
fn main() {
    let mut s1 = String::from("Alice");
    println!("{}",foo(&mut s1))
}
```

- A. 0
- B. 8
- C. Error
- D. 5

Quiz 3: What is printed?

```
fn foo(s: &mut String) -> usize{
    s.push_str("Bob");
    s.len()
}
fn main() {
    let mut s1 = String::from("Alice");
    println!("{}",foo(&mut s1))
}
```

- A. 0
- **B.** 8
- C. Error
- D. 5

Ownership and Mutable References

- Can make only one mutable reference
- Doing so blocks use of the original
 - Restored when reference is dropped

```
let mut s1 = String::from("hello");
{ let s2 = &mut s1; //ok
    let s3 = &mut s1; //fails: second borrow
    s1.bush_str(" there"); //fails: second borrow
} //s2 dropped; s1 is first-class owner again
s1.push_str(" there"); //ok
println!("String is {}",s1); //ok
```

implicit borrow (self is a reference)

Immutable and Mutable References

- Cannot make a mutable reference if immutable references exist
 - Holders of an immutable reference assume the object will not change from under them!

```
let mut s1 = String::from("hello");
{ let s2 = &s1; //ok: s2 is immutable
  let s3 = &s1; //ok: multiple imm. refs allowed
  let s4 = &mut s1; //fails: imm ref already
} //s2-s4 dropped; s1 is owner again
s1.push_str(" there"); //ok
println!("String is {}",s1); //ok
```

Aside: Generics and Polymorphism

- Rust has support like that of Java and OCaml
 - Example: The std library defines Vec<T> where T can be instantiated with a variety of types
 - Vec<char> is a vector of characters
 - Vec<&str> is a vector of string slices
- You can define polymorphic functions, too

More later...

Dangling References

- References must always be to valid memory
 - Not to memory that has been dropped

```
fn main() {
  let ref_invalid = dangle();
  println!("what will happen ... {}",ref_invalid);
}
fn dangle() -> &String {
  let s1 = String::from("hello");
  &s1
} // bad! s1's value has been dropped
```

- Rust type checker will disallow this using a concept called lifetimes
 - A lifetime is a type-level parameter that names the scope in which the data is valid

Lifetimes: Preventing Dangling Refs

Another way to view our prior example

```
let r; // deferred init
{
  let x = 5;
    r = &x;
}
println!("r: {}",r); //fails
}
r's lifetime 'a

Lissue:
r ← x but 'a $\pmu$'b
```

- The Rust type checker observes that x goes out of scope while r still exists
 - A lifetime is a type variable that identifies a scope
 - r's lifetime 'a exceeds x's lifetime 'b

Lifetimes and Functions

- Lifetime of a reference not always visible
 - E.g., when passed as an argument to a function

```
fn longest(x:&str, y:&str) -> &str {
  if x.len() > y.len() { x } else { y }
}
```

– What could go wrong here?

```
{ let x = String::from("hi");
 let z;
 { let y = String::from("there");
  z = longest(&x,&y); //will be &y
 } //drop y, and thereby z
 println!("z = {}",z);//yikes!
}
```

String slice (more later)

Quiz 4: What is printed?

- A. dog
- B. hi
- C. Error y is immutable
- D. Error y dropped while still borrowed

Quiz 4: What is printed?

- A. dog
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Recap: Rules of References

- 1. At any given time, you can have either but not both of
 - One mutable reference
 - Any number of immutable references
- 2. References must always be valid
 - A reference must never outlive its referent

Traits Overview

- Traits allow us to abstract behavior that types can have in common
 - In situations where we use generic type parameters, we can use trait bounds to specify that the generic type must implement a trait
- Traits are a bit like Java interfaces
 - But we can implement traits over any type, anywhere in the code, not only at the point we define the type

Defining a Trait

Here is a trait with a single function

```
pub trait Summarizable {
  fn summary(&self) -> String;
}
```

- Specify &self for "instance" methods
 - Note: can also specify "associated" methods
 - Like static methods in Java
- Equivalent in Java:

```
public interface Summarizable {
   String summary();
}
```

Implementing a Trait on a Type

name of trait

type on which we are implementing it

Default Implementations

Here is a trait with a default implementation

```
pub trait Summarizable {
   fn summary(&self) -> String {
     String::from("none")
   }
} default
impl
impl
impl
lmpl uses default
```

```
impl Summarizable for (i32,i32,i32) {}
fn foo() {
   let y = (1,2).summary(); //"3"
   let z = (1,2,3).summary();//"none"
}
```

Trait Bounds

 With generics, you can specify that a type variable must implement a trait

- This method works on any type T that implements the Summarizable trait
- Can specify multiple Trait Bounds using +

Standard Traits

- We have seen several standard traits already
 - Clone holds if the object has a clone() method
 - Copy holds if you can copy it
 - I.e., it's a primitive
 - Deref holds if you can dereference it
 - I.e., it's a reference
- There are other useful ones too
 - Display if it can be converted to a string
 - PartialOrd if it implements a comparison operator

Putting all Together

- Finds the largest element in an array slice
 - Generic in the type T of the contents of the array

```
fn largest<T: PartialOrd + Copy>(list: &[T]) -> T
{
    let mut largest = list[0];
    for &item ip list.iter() {
        if item( > largest {
            largest = ltem; Requires Copy trait
        }
        Requires PartialOrd
    largest trait
}
```

Putting all Together

- Finds the largest element in an array slice
 - Generic in the type T of the contents of the array

```
fn largest<T: PartialOrd + Copy>(list: &[T]) -> T
{...}
fn main() {
    let number_list = vec![34, 50, 25, 100, 65];
    let result = largest(&number_list);
    println!("The largest number is {}", result);
    let char_list = vec!['y', 'm', 'a', 'q'];
    let result = largest(&char_list);
    println!("The largest char is {}", result);
}
```

```
prints The largest number is 100
The largest char is y
```

Notes

Trait implementations can be generic too

```
pub trait Queue<T> {
   fn enqueue(&mut self, ele: T) -> (); ...
}
impl <T> Queue<T> for Vec<T> {
   fn enqueue(&mut self, ele:T) -> () {...} ...
}
```

 Generic method implementations of structs and enums can include trait bounds